MAY 12 1927

The JOURNAL of GEOGRAPHY

VOLUME XXVI

MAY, 1927

NUMBER 5

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THE JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY

A MAGAZINE FOR SCHOOLS

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The subscription price is $2.50 a year, payable in advance. The price of single copies is 35 cents. Postage is prepaid on subscriptions from the United States, Canal Zone, Republic of Panama, Porto Rico, Cuba, Virgin Islands of the United States, Dominican Republic, Philippines, Guam, Samoan Islands, Hawaii, Mexico, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Republic of Honduras, Salvador, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uraguay, Spain and Spanish colonies. Postage is charged extra for Canada and all other countries in the Postal Union as follows: 27 cents on annual subscriptions (total $2.77), on single copies 3 cents (total 38 cents).

The Journal is the official organ of the National Council of Geography Teachers and is sent to all members of the organization. The annual dues, $2.00, are payable to the *Journal of Geography*. Extra postage rates for copies sent to foreign countries should be added to the membership dues.

Patrons are requested to make all remittances payable to the *Journal of Geography*, in postal or express money orders or bank drafts.

Members and subscribers who wish to continue receiving the *Journal* must send remittances promptly to assure the volume being complete.

Send manuscript and books for notice or review to the *Editor*.
Send orders for back numbers to *Journal of Geography*.

Published monthly except June, July and August

PUBLICATION OFFICES: 458 AHNAIP STREET, MENASHA, WISCONSIN

Business Correspondence, Membership Dues, and Subscriptions may be sent to Publication office or to

A. J. NYSTROM AND COMPANY,
PUBLISHERS, JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY,
2249 CALUMET AVENUE, CHICAGO

Entered as second-class matter January 15, 1919, at the postoffice of Menasha, Wisconsin, under the Act of March 3, 1879.

THE JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY

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AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

New York Cincinnati Chicago Boston Atlanta

The JOURNAL of GEOGRAPHY

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VOLUME XXVI MAY, 1927 NUMBER 5

CONTRIBUTION OF GEOGRAPHY IN SENIOR HIGH GRADES*

ALBERT PERRY BRIGHAM

Colgate University

There is in geographic education a gulf between the grades and the university. Forty years ago, yes, thirty years ago, geography was not in American universities. A letter-head, coming the other day from a state university not specially known in our science, showed a geographic staff of nine.

Without intentional injustice, certain honored names are charged with overdeveloping the physical side of geography. Let one who ought to know, affirm that we owe a great debt to Powell, Gilbert, Davis, Tarr and others who not only launched geography into our higher education, but of set purpose drove us toward the geography of man. Geography is now in the consciousness of our higher schools, hundreds teach it, thousands study it, and there is no longer much desire or any excuse for calling it a baby subject.

HIATUS IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS

The hiatus is in the high schools. In the great state of New York, with more than eleven millions of people, and geographic interests of supreme value, there was an announcement that our one secondary examination in geography would be discontinued in 1926. This was the test in physical geography, in a region almost as big and nearly as varied in its physiognomy as England. Strong protest was made by the teachers and geographers of the state, the order was rescinded and geography is retained. In like manner, but a single examination is given by the College Entrance Examination Board. Thus the subject is penalized and paralyzed by

*Read at the meeting of the National Council of Geography Teachers, Philadelphia, 1926.

being made useless for examination credit. A friend who has been principal of several large high schools in New England has just told me that no geography was taught in any of them. I think also that most of the great private academies of the East are innocent of any acquaintance with our science.

I am not speaking today as an architect of curricula, but as a geographer. I understand the pressure on the schools by a multitude of subjects. I see why consolidation is thought of in programs of socialized study. But in adapting the materials of study to the needs of youth, I am sure we all agree that the subject should not become dismembered nor chaotic. This, I think, is especially true for the upper years of the high school, when the child is becoming the man.

Geography is doing well in the grades and higher schools and is doing nothing or next to nothing in most secondary schools. Principals, superintendents and the committees who toil conscientiously at making courses of study, too often do not know our subject and have no notion of its value in training for thought, in vocational outlook, in broadening the citizen and in personal culture and intellectual satisfaction.

I use the word culture, and do not throw it down as outworn. Not all our efforts in education need be consciously aimed at vocation, or even at citizenship. We may even say so much about "attitudes" and citizenship that these ideas will become hackneyed to teachers who want to do their best for their children and their country.

LEADERS NEED GEOGRAPHY

Millions of our boys and girls get the flower and fruit of their education in the secondary school. Then the great world claims them. We live on the earth. Are we going to shut the earth and the organic environment out of the training of the leaders of the world's work and thought? Are we going to refuse the enriching power of geography to millions of men and women who will be the backbone of American nationality? We shall do this if we continue to ignore this great realm in our high schools.

Public men need geography and they cannot get what they want "when they want it." Look at the training in this great subject given in foreign schools. Legislators and all dealing with foreign relations, commerce, industry, agriculture, with social betterment and national growth, need geography. The journalist needs it at

his finger tips. Preachers, writers, citizens need it—the geography that deals with the earth, with men, with causes, results, nations, continents, races, resources, climates, with man's use of the earth and his relations to his kind. It is idle to say that this mature knowledge can be given in elementary and junior grades.

TRAINING OF GRADE TEACHERS

The next major need for high school geography is in the equipment of grade teachers. We cannot train them without the aid of the high school. Too many of our normal schools do not, or cannot supply the need. Too much method with too little geography is often found. How can we get grade teachers if we do not teach them. Geography is no easy subject, but the most difficult of all elementary science to present, because much of its material is remote and it deals with the earth and with man.

Every large high school should have a teaching staff and equipment in geography as good as those of chemistry, physics or biology. The high school is the bridge over the river of ignorance for the grade teacher. There are exceptions, but this is the rule.

Granting the close interpenetration of subjects in meeting the needs of children, it remains that the teacher ought to know the subject in a rounded and integrated fashion. Fragments of geography may be dovetailed into other things but these fragments will be distorted and misapplied by the teacher who is not grounded in geography, and in its several phases, studied as subjects. Thus alone can we have sustained instruction from top to bottom. We need teachers with university training in the secondary schools and teachers of sound secondary training in the junior and elementary grades.

ABNORMAL ELECTIVE WORK

So much by way of reasons why geography should be taught in high schools. Now what geography should be there taught? And here I restrict myself. I have asked our President to let me keep to the two last years of the secondary schools. I propose no form of the curriculum, but I urge that these years should provide for the elective study of certain parts of geography in a mature and somewhat advanced manner.

These upper years offer to a degree the same mental maturity as in the first two years of college. The freshmen and sophomore

years are by common knowledge on a par with the public schools of England, the lycée in France and the gymnasium in Germany. My point here is that as far as we can, we should give the same outlook on great fields that we give the student in the lower years of college. Be assured I am not asking for required courses, but for the opportunity for those that want it, and all should want it who are to be teachers in the grades. Much is done by this council and its branches, by the *Journal of Geography* and in our summer schools, to aid elementary teaching, but the handicap remains, so long as the high school ignores geography. I propose no fixed list of upper-year courses. This depends on local conditions, on the qualifications of the teacher and the scale of equipment provided.

Physical Geography Should Come Back

I think strong courses in physical geography should find place here. I include physiography, both processes and forms, glacial geology, climatology and, where out-of-door conditions favor, some knowledge of the succession of rocks. Of many reasons for urging the revival of these subjects, I specially emphasize a single one. They are the only possible subjects in a high school curriculum to develop the *time sense.*

The Time Sense

The space sense is cultivated in the study of continents and oceans, of the world as a whole and in the considerations falling under what we sometimes call mathematical geography. The time sense cannot be enlarged to an adequate measure in ordinary history, and it is not gained in the elementary school. It cannot be given by the teacher's say-so, or by talking glibly of millions of years.

Let me qfote from elementary texts—"thousands of years ago," "Long after the coal beds and the mountains were formed," "After standing for a while (how much is a while?) and building a moraine in one place," "A very long time ago." All these quotations refer to ancient glaciation. I am not criticising the authors—it simply can't be done! Try to explain to children the alternation of coal beds and rock beds—"Hundreds of years," "Another long period," "Many more centuries,"—No, it falls short. We must have intensive study and older students to push the time idea home.

Nothing is so important as the feeling for time, if we want to understand the creative method, if we would comprehend men's nature and place in the world, and if we would have just views of social and national growth. There is much unwisdom in the world because we expect God and man to work in a rush and bring consummations speedily to pass. I shall not, I trust, burn my fingers on a political subject, if I say that fewer people would condemn their country for caution in international action if they had a sense of the age-long patience of the universe. I once said that no man should be let to escape into the pulpit until he had had a course in historical geology. I am not asking for such courses in high schools. The study of processes of sedimentation, uplift, denudation, of land forms, of glaciers and the ice age, and of some other themes in physical geography will do the work to a degree of effectiveness.

We constantly date ancient man by his relation to stages of glaciation, but this means nothing if glaciation is taught in the touch-and-go way that alone is possible in the grades.

We should be spared pain and trouble in this age of strong controversy in some great matters, if more Americans had the time sense, and knew how the world, even the surface of it, was made.

We are not wandering in the cloudy realms of useless theory when we try to find out how long it took to make trilobites, fishes, dinosaurs, oak trees, or horses, for we shall acquire sane expectations as to the perfecting of human society, and the time needed to usher the world into an ideal life.

Geology and physical geography are the only subjects in our courses of study that are competent to develop in the consciousness, the feeling and conviction of immense duration. Therefore the geographer must not shrink from these subjects or touch them with fear and trembling, as if he were reaching after forbidden fruit outside of the geographic enclosure. "When you build a fence, you are likely to fence out a good deal more than you fence in." May I venture to say that I have long been known as putting man in the center of geography and I ought to be as free as anyone to urge without prejudice, thoro study of the physical environment as vital in our progress toward the human goal of our studies.

If we look at the frontier, or better, the absence of frontiers,

between history and sociology, or between chemistry and physics, or sociology and economics, we need not be squeamish about what we admit into geography. If one is happier not to call certain things geographic, it matters little what he names them if only he gets them. I have no fault to find with attempts to define geography. I would not object to trying it myself, when I find a dearth of more interesting things to do.

There is enough to achieve in the central regions of geography. We need not worry about where the circumference is. It is nowhere a line, it is an irregular and varying zone. If the subjects considered here be surrendered to geology they will (there being few Shalers in the world) be taught as geology and not in reference to man, and they will not be taught where many of our youth can get them.

In the recently appearing programs of thirty-one summer schools, physiography appears in eleven. No doubt much about land form is taught in certain regional courses, but in barely more than a third are we assured of coherent attention to the physical foundation of things. It is not vital to give these subjects a generic name—it is vital that we teach them.

Glaciation and Climatology

Shut in by limits of space, let me name among others, two further phases of physical geography, glaciation and climatology. Of the first it may be said that at least fifty millions of our people live in the glaciated areas of the northern United States. Most of our great cities, the major zone of industry, no small part of our agriculture and a vast number of our playgrounds are within this belt. Here are soils, streams, lakes, the forms of the land, the interpretation of scenery—a world of basal things rising up into the lives of almost half of our people. They call for knowledge of the ice invasions by the teachers of our children, that is not charged with error and dark with ignorance. It is difficult enough to make a college senior know that a profound Tertiary valley was not dug out by the Wisconsin glacier! I have always found in teaching teachers in summer sessions that they needed and welcomed fundamental instruction in these physical aspects of geography.

Every graduate of a high school should have had a chance to elect a course in climatology. It is not pertinent to observe that meteorology is "physics, pure and simple," and has no place in

geography. We are not thinking of meteorology but of that great summation of facts and principles which cannot escape being human, that is climatology. This cannot be covered in the lower grades or as a part of general geography in the junior high school. It requires able teaching, continuity and much thinking. Every one of our hundred and twenty millions of people is concerned with the weather and its synthesis, climate. Agriculture, manufacture, transportation, health, recreation, life itself, all are profoundly concerned with it. Youth, age, the sick and the well, government, economics, all have to do with it, and even the physical and spiritual unfolding thru the centuries of the American and every other type of human being.

Climate is a key to the history of the past and a determinant in the development of the future, from the Arctic circles to the Equator, and in all the longitudes of the world, and yet, in the schooling of the grades we find a method of touch and go, by struggling, half qualified teachers. In the secondary schools climate is hardly present and it is but meagerly taught in most universities. And this is true of the most pervasive, fundamental and inescapable physical factor in our life and activity. We do not free ourselves from climatic control by building furnace fires in our cellars or by rushing southward in the winter months.

Let me enforce these considerations by citing a single recent volume, Professor Ward's "Climate of the United States." The teacher who brings to bear the facts and spirit of this book will do effective service in geographic education in any high school. Go over the topics and subtopics anywhere—I quote—"Economics of Snow," "Cloudiness and Man," "Fogs and Navigation," "Forest Service, and Fires by Lightning," "Loss by Tornadoes," "Economics of Cold Waves," "Physiological Aspects of Hot Waves," "Winds, House Sites and Sleeping Porches," "Climate and Crops," and many more. There is not a chapter that does not touch upon human relations.

Adding to Ward's work the studies of Huntington, Dexter, Brooks and many others, on present and historic and prehistoric climate, it is almost criminal to omit this great realm of directly important truths in the education of our youth. It will not be done except thru trained teachers in well equipped departments of instruction. Of the thirty-one summer schools only four offer courses in climate.

As I turn now to the human phases of geography available in the upper years of the high school, space and time compel me to brevity. Poverty of treatment is however not to be taken as minimizing the importance of the themes to be named. I have devoted more attention to physical geography because I believe it is in more present danger of being neglected.

Twenty years ago it was charged that a dry and rigid scientific physiography was destroying interest. Then attempts to correct the evil were made by the preparation of some new high school texts. Certainly if the subject was over-emphasized, you have been correcting the disparity. Our danger now is not in having too much human geography, but in slighting physical geography. We are now, I think, beginning to come back to earth, to "fresh air and sunshine," as Professor von Engeln puts it.

I do not know what you will put into the last year of the junior high school or into the earlier period of the senior high school if geography wins a place there. Whatever happens I feel sure there is a place for a relatively mature geography in the upper years—substantial physical studies followed by rather intensive human themes.

REGIONAL STUDIES

There is room for careful regional studies. I am using the term regional in a very wide sense. It might refer to one or more of the physiographic regions of the United States, such as the Atlantic Coastal Plain, the Appalachian Valley, the Appalachian Highlands, the Great Plains, or the Basin and Range Province. This would depend upon location. We might better choose, when these are more fully worked out, natural regions, areas often more restricted and more unified than our physiographic provinces, taking into account all the natural features, geomorphological, climatic and biologic, which would belong to such a unit. Or we might choose a political unit like New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, or California, again according to position and local interests, giving far more intensive study than can be had thru the state geographies of our elementary texts. Or again regions may be chosen, partly political, partly because of common traits found over large areas; such are New England, the low interior plains of our mid-continental region, or central region, a designation which I wish we might adopt and forever ban the ugly name "Middle West,"

which has it in neither grace nor truth. Or we could choose the West in its true sense.

Again there is urgent need, for popular intelligence and wise citizenship, of certain topical studies of the United States, dealing with our resources and our people. These might take the form of a more advanced and intensive economic geography, than the skeleton of facts which I suspect is now taught in the commercial departments of high schools.

POPULATION PROBLEMS

Here a special field is found in our population problems. There is a great ferment in our time to find out what we are and are going to be in America. We have lost some of our *best-nation-on-earth* cocksureness and we now pull our eagle's tail when he screams too loud. But in reaching conclusions we do not want to be left to the psychologists, the measurer of intelligence, the politician or the *American Mercury*. There is no place where the high school student about to receive his diploma can so well get light on the truth about his own country as in the classroom of a sound teacher of geography. I can bearly hint at the field.

Are we as a nation going to the dogs of cheap, mongrel alienization, issuing in nondescript beings of material pleasures, low ideals and moronic intelligence? Are we disturbed when we are gravely told by supposedly learned men, that we are "breeding out our best"? Are we perturbed overmuch about the "fruit of the family tree"? Why does a former Senator, of literary reputation, speak of the "seven millions of German born" in this country, when the fourteenth census would tell him we have one quarter of that number? Why are depressing things said about the Negro increase, when the percentage of Negroes has declined for a hundred and thirty-five years, and white southern mothers have more children than do Negro mothers?

Why do heralders of calamity look always at eastern cities and never at the country villages and the southern states, when they write dolefully, that we are being submerged by aliens? Why do we become over-anxious about decadent citizenship when we have always had morons before there were army tests, or measuring laboratories? Why do we fret about the Harvard and Vassar graduate as not reproducing themselves and lose sight of sound youths ever as of yore rising from humble homes. Why do we ig-

nore the sober, painstaking census when it tells us that the numerical equivalent of the descendents of the Americans of 1790 was in 1920 over 47,000,000? Today it is 50,000,000, almost half of our white population.

I know no place that can so well give the facts that will help the voter to judge America, and decide aright upon social and international problems like that of immigration—no place, I say, is so well suited to these things as the geography room in the senior high school—taking account of the millions that will never know a college.

CONSERVATION AND COMMERCE

My time is exhausted before I have rounded up my theme. Other great fields are open and inviting. Such is conservation, that well might afford a semester's work taking up the exhaustion of free lands, and the wasting of good things thru growing numbers and mechanical exploitation. Here are soils, coal, iron, the mineral fuels, water in all its multitudinous, conflicting and vital uses, the forests and the belated American horror of a treeless world. Here is the very home land of the teacher of geography.

Then there is trade, domestic, that of an empire—and foreign, with its world-wide involvement in diplomacy, economics, war and peace. Some one suggested that an envelope marked Herbert Hoover, with no address, mailed in Pekin, Moscow, Bucharest, Warsaw, Kracow, Naples, Brussels or San Francisco, would reach his desk in Washington. Do our boys and girls know that he heads, and has created, in the Department of Commerce, what may be called the greatest school of trade in the world? Trade involves so much of mathematics, economics, production, transportation, tastes, languages, government and the rights of men, that we might call Hoover's realm, without much error, a university.

Such are the great fields of nature and of human life which are open to our secondary schools. Whether you put distribution, or geographic influence, or what not, into your definition of geography, you can, without fear of transgressing the boundaries of your subject, enter on a task that is great and alluring.

THE REPUBLIC OF AUSTRIA

ALICE M. KRACKOWIZER

State Normal School
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THE BACKGROUND OF THE NEW AUSTRIA

Thesis:—What are Austria's chances for existence in the future?

It is impossible to understand the new Austria without knowing the background of its geography and history. In so far as is consistent with an adequate interpretation, this paper has tried to confine itself to the geographic side of the question. The national and linguistic factors can not, however, be entirely ignored.

That the old Romans seized upon geographically strategic points of advantage is indicated by the following facts: The germ of the city of Vienna sprang up on the right bank of the Danube in the Roman camp of Caruntum. A road was built from there to Aquileia, a winter harbor on the Adriatic near the present site of Trieste. From Innsbruck the old Roman road ran across the Inn bridge to the Brenner pass, coveted and seized recently by Italy. The province of Styria held two Roman camps and the Roman road over the Phyrn pass, one of the chief entrances from the south into the Alps system. At Graz the Romans fortified the Schlossberg, rising abruptly 400 feet above the expanding plain of the Mur valley, this point being a center in the link between east and west and between north and south traffic. Similar evidences of early geographic control can be found in the museum and environs of Salzburg.

The "East Mark"—from the English word "March", meaning a protecting dike or a border wall—was founded more than eleven hundred years ago by Charlemagne (768-814), as a defense against what was termed the "barbarians" of the east. It was a geographically strategic point on the Danube, closing the door thru the Carpathian mountains between east and west. While in its early days it was the "watcher at the gate" guarding the civilization of western Europe against the Turks and Mohammedanism it became the bridge which carried western European civilization to the Balkans.

Naturally the smaller groups of peoples at that time not yet consolidated as nations, grouped themselves about this "buffer state" for maintenance and protection; some came in voluntarily as did Trieste in 1382, some came by inheritance, by marriage or

by treaties, later some were annexed. The original mission based upon geographic location ceased to exist when the Turks were defeated in 1453. However, being by this time a region of economic independence, watered and drained by the Danube and its tributaries, flanked by the Alps and the Carpathians, it remained temporarily united. The seeds of dissolution had already been sown. The sense of security fostered by the removal of the eastern menace, turned the thought of the people upon themselves, and hastened the growth of national consciousness, and the aspirations of expression in a common language. The first part of the Empire to become a political entity was Hungary, the "granary" of Europe, which in 1867 declared itself independent except for purposes of mutual protection. During the World War the original impulse toward unity still held. The result of the war accomplished the dissolution. Geographic and economic considerations went into the discard. Home products were encouraged even tho higher in price and poorer in quality; three states which had formerly profited by Austria's sea coast became landlocked; where formerly there had been no tariff restrictions, a half dozen state boundaries sprang up to interfere with normal exchange of goods. The arteries of commerce—navigation of the Danube and long distance railroad lines—were hampered, this proving as disastrous to the Succession states as it did to Austria. National ambition and linguistic affiliations carried the day. Economic advantage was sacrificed to the national point of view. Thus did Austria receive its death warrant.

Old Austria had been a diminutive Europe with a central position geographically between east and west and north and south. It had made a late attempt to solve its problem, but, like Europe, was not yet ready.

The new Austria was in a pitiable plight. These were some of the difficulties encountered:

1. Loss of natural resources and territory
2. Loss of sea coast
3. Loss of investments (now largely foreign)
4. Working capital exhausted
5. Industry reduced thru loss of old markets and of raw materials
6. Exceptional degree of unemployment

7. Yearly deficit of national revenue
8. Depreciation of its money
9. High tariff barriers between Succession states
10. Interest as high as 15½ per cent
11. Agricultural production impaired
12. In Vienna one of the finest cultures dying a slow death
13. The suffering of the middle and professional as well as artistic class
14. The population too great to be fed by the hinterland

Already history has recorded the appeal made by Austria to the League of Nations and the help received as a result. The details do not belong in this discussion. Since then Austria has worked vigorously to get back upon its feet. The two year contract has expired, but Austria is not yet ready to stand alone. Will it be possible for it to do so in the future?

Losses Sustained

The empire of Austria-Hungary was geographically compact. It was the second largest country in extent of Europe. It furnished seaports for twelve nationalities. It was the meeting place of the traffic from north to south and from west to east. Its rivers flowed into four seas—the Black, Adriatic, Baltic and North seas. Thru all its territory there was free transit of goods. To the capital city—Vienna—was acceded leadership in intellectual, scientific, musical and artistic as well as industrial pursuits.

At the present time the extent of Austria has been cut to one-fourth of its former size and to one-eighth of its productive economic territory. Its area comprises approximately 32,000 square miles, its population of 50,000,000 has been lowered to 6,500,000, almost one-third of whom still reside in Vienna, thus making of the republic a dwarf with a large head. The former Bohemia, the best geographic unit, at present within the boundaries of Czechoslovakia, took from Austria a large forested area, most of the coal —lignite and bituminous—some iron, the clay and quartzes for making the once renowned glass and porcelain, two-thirds of the barley, one-half of the rye, much wheat, oats and potatoes, a large percentage of textile factories, sugar beet factories and breweries, many of which were financed, developed and owned by the Germans of Austria. Of the number formerly engaged in these indus-

tries 40 per cent still live in Vienna with their resources cut off. This has been one of the phases of the serious problem of unemployment in Vienna, especially.

The former provinces of Moravia, Bukovina, Goritzia absorbed much good farming land, producing wheat, corn, barley and wine. Hungary withdrew its wheat, Silisia its coal, Galicia its zinc. While Czechoslovakia received the second largest industrial city, Prague (Praha) and 3,500,000 Germans, Lemberg in Galicia, the fourth in size, and Cracow in Poland, fifth in size of industrial cities were also lost. Cracow is located in the vicinity of valuable salt mines.

Jugoslavia deprived Austria of sea coast, the fishing industry in Dalmatia, the only available mercury mines and much agricultural land, especially in the Alpine foreland. Italy's acquisitions, promised it at the secret treaty of London, were based upon geographically strategic demands rather than upon economic or geographic unity.

The corn and grape vines produced in Istria were, of course, an economic asset, but it was the watershed between the Danube and the Adriatic sea which Italy wanted, because of the coveted possession of the Brenner pass, controlling the valleys of the Inn and the Adige. Within these limits are some German towns and a large German population; also Trieste, the third city in size of the Austrian empire and the first in commercial importance, excepting only Vienna.

The main industry depending upon home resources was badly crippled. This was the lumber industry. Jugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Poland and Hungary are now in position to furnish most of the raw materials for the cooperage, flooring, box and crate and veneer phases of the industry. Adding to this the prohibition of imports to the Succession states, it is evident that a revival of the industry does not show a favorable prospect at present.

In order to follow accurately the present boundaries of Austria it is necessary to deal with the plebiscites held in several regions. In Carinthia the region about Klagenfurt contains agricultural resources. With Klagenfurt as a prospective market for their produce, the farmers voted in favor of Austria (This was the only plebiscite held without the presence of interallied military forces.)

In western Hungary the German Burgenland was delegated to

Austria with the exception of the city of Ödenburg which remained Hungarian property. This narrow strip of land, improved by irrigation and navigation canals affecting a large territory, came to Austria under its former title of the "Kitchen Garden" of Vienna.

No accurate data seem to be available for the Austria of the present day. One significant fact is that this country is no longer listed among the forty leading countries of the world. Neither is Austria mentioned to any extent in the 1918 reports. It figures largely in the 1913 reports on minerals, as well as along other lines.

The interpretation of this would seem to be either that Austria in 1918 had no output or had no reports to show this. The former seems to be the correct interpretation.

COMPARISONS

The republic of Austria is now bordered by six countries: Switzerland and Liechtenstein with unchanged frontier; Germany, with unchanged frontier; Italy, Jugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and Hungary. Its area is estimated to be equal to various geographic entities such as South Carolina, Lake Superior, and Ireland. It is twice the size of Belgium, Holland, Switzerland. A further comparison is drawn with Switzerland to the effect that while the population is one and one-half times that of Switzerland, the density per square mile is less except in certain congested industrial districts. The forest area is nearly double that of Switzerland at the expense of pasture land; the proportion of waste land is less in Austria, but the prosperity and experience of the Swiss in intensive agriculture more than counterbalance this factor. The mountains are somewhat lower, therefore, the scenery is less rugged but none the less beautiful. This, together with the fact that the mountain valleys are less easy of access to "Tourists," mitigates against the tourist industry carried on on an extensive scale as in Switzerland.

Austria is now a Confederation of states, independent of one another, whose boundaries can not be changed except by consent of the federation as a whole and of the special province involved. The division of the country between Italy and Czechoslovakia failed to materialize because of the intervention of the League of Nations. The new constitution seems to meet the needs of the new republic.

Austria is no longer a geographic unit; nor is it self sustaining. It consists of the provinces of Vorarlberg, the Tyrol, Salzburg, Upper and Lower Austria, Carinthia, Styria, the Burgenland and the city of Vienna.

Problems of Population

Its population is 95 per cent German, hence more homogeneous than that of its neighboring states. The population of the Austria-Hungarian Empire approximated 50,000,000, distributed by nationalities as follows:

Germans	24%	Ruthenian	8%
Magyars	20%	Rumanians	6%
Czechs	17%	Serbs, Croats, Slovenes	14%
Poles	10%	Italians	1%

Six and a half million of these remain in Austria. The distribution of this number is abnormal, inasmuch as 1,800,000 are still in Vienna. There are two main factors influencing the distribution of population in Austria. They are topography and industrial centers. The density is in inverse ratio to the altitude, the most scattered population, 1-128 to the square mile, being found in the mountains. Outside of Vienna, 1,500,000 are found in the level and hilly regions of lower and upper Austria in the agricultural and industrial sections. Owing to the mountainous character of the country it has been necessary to establish local centers for the distribution of agricultural and industrial products. The centers are located in river valleys and have become intersecting points for railroads. They also have drawn a goodly percentage of the population. These centers and their populations are as follows:

Graz, Styria	160,000	Wiener Neustadt, Lower Austria	37,000
Linz, Upper Austria	102,000	St. Polten, Lower Austria	26,000
Innsbruck, Tyrol	56,000	Klagenfurt, Carinthia	26,000
Salzburg, Slazburg	38,000		

Adding these figures to the ones quoted above, the rest of Austria contains only about 2,740,000 people, or less than one-third.

The Provinces

The provinces of Austria deserve individual attention beside that given to their distributing centers. The Tyrol in character much resembles Switzerland except that its Alpine agriculture and pasturage have not been so adequately developed. Here it is that

many summer travelers spend days of rest and out-of-door enjoyment, revelling in the bracing mountain air, fishing in the mountain streams and roaming about the extensive forests. Innsbruck, the capital, nestles close to the mountains on the banks of the roaring Inn. It is a meeting place of traffic from north to south and from east to west, due to the trend of longitudinal and transverse river valleys. Ischl is a mineral spring resort. Landeck at the entrance to the Engadine or upper Inn valley is the seat of some iron industry.

The province of Vorarlberg, closest to Switzerland, resembles this country even more than the Tyrol. Hence the early desire after the war to be incorporated within the limits of that country. It forms an important link in the transportation from west to east by means of the Vorarlberg tunnel.

The province of Salzburg is one of the most picturesque in the republic. The city of Salzburg is situated on a geographically important site between two hills, the enclosure between which opens out upon the plain of the Salzach river. Salzburg shares with Vienna the fame of being a musical center. During the weeks of the summer festival it is crowded with strangers from the ends of the earth who stimulate to quite an extent the summer trade. Much salt is found in the province of Salzburg, and some mineral springs. Halstadt is the center for the first, Hallein and Gastein for the latter. The mountains flanking this province are not easy to cross; one route goes south by way of Gastein and the Hohe Tauern tunnel.

The province of Carinthia was tied to the republic by plebiscite. The geographically strategic town of Tarvis was gained by Italy, but Villach, dealing in lead, steel wire, wood and paper, still holds a good position on the commercial road to Venice. Klagenfurt is a nearby market for the farm products and like Villach, lies in a river valley and a somewhat open hill country at the intersection of important railroad lines.

The province of Styria produces the largest amount of iron ore in Austria. The Erzberg at Eisenerz has been worked for 2000 years in the open and is still the source of supplies. Styria also produces some graphite, zinc and salt. Graz, the capital, is the commercial center for the eastern Alpine region and abounds in factories turning out machinery, paper, cloth, leather goods, beer

and a small quantity of wine. It is situated on a tributary of the Danube, which furnishes water power. It also has intersecting railroads, one of which is especially important for its connection with the south.

Upper Austria has a larger percentage of fertile soil than the provinces already dealt with. One-third of the area is cultivated, one-fifth in pasture and one-third is covered by forests which furnish the raw materials for paper. Linz, the capital, is situated on the Danube where this river leaves a gorge and enters upon the widening plain. It is the main distributing center for this fertile and thickly settled region. It is largely engaged in manufacturing. Steyr is the most important hardware center. The foothills of the Alps are noted for their many mountain lakes and the picturesque towns lying on their borders. Gmunden on the Traunlake is one of the most charming of these. It is known also for its salt output. The southeastern section contains the Phyrn pass, one of the most important gaps connecting Austria with the south.

The Burgenland, a narrow strip of land ceded by Hungary by plebiscite has been previously quoted as being the "kitchen garden of Vienna."

Lower Austria includes the hilly region of the Danube and fertile agricultural land and shows the greatest industrial activity. It is the most thickly settled portion of the republic averaging with Vienna 400 persons to the square mile. Wiener Neustadt is a promising manufacturing city, and a market for the surrounding farms. It manufactures principally locomotives and leather goods. St. Pölten is another local center.

VIENNA

The head of the country has always been Vienna. While in former times Vienna was the hub of the wheel, its location now is in the northeastern corner of the country. This is a great handicap in many ways. Its hinterland is no longer sufficient to feed its population and thus to justify the size of the city. Vienna's geographical position on the Danube inside of the Iron Gates and at the crossroads from north to south and east to west early gave it a commanding position. During the period of the Crusades it was a mart of exchange. Later it became an exchange center between the agricultural lands of eastern Europe and their surplus

of food, and the needed manufactures of the western section. It was the chief center for southeastern Europe of culture, art, music and science. It almost fed itself. It was the financial head of the empire, as well as its commercial head. The water power of the Wiener Wald made it the heart of the industrial section. It led in the manufacture of metal work, leather goods, textiles, artistic articles of luxury, scientific instruments, chemicals and other articles of commercial value. It was the most important grain and cattle market. Its network of railroads extends in all directions. The Orient express passes thru Linz, Vienna, Budapest, etc. to the east. A line runs from Vienna to Prague, the meeting place of roads from southern, northern and central Germany. The Adriatic sea and Trieste are reached by a line over the Semmering pass. Two longitudinal valleys following the Enns, Salzach, Inn rivers to Innsbruck carry railroad lines to Switzerland and the west. A more southern route leads via Innsbruck to Verona across the Brenner pass. This joins a short cut from Salzburg to Trieste. The achievement of this network of railroads was made possible by the many river drained longitudinal and transverse valleys, coupled with great engineering skill.

These lines of communication Vienna still retains. It still has the confidence of southeastern Europe. It has its personnel trained in language for communication with its neighbors. It still acts as a market of exchange and still is the banking center of the Succession states. It still holds interests in the industrial enterprises of these states. It continues to sustain its reputation for artistic, high standards. It has the same resources of the Wiener Wald in forest and water power. Whether it will regain its former standing, or whether competing cities like Belgrade, or Bratislava will outstrip it cannot be foretold.

THE DANUBE

Mention has been made of the many river valleys used for transportation but not for navigation. The Danube, navigable from Ulm in Germany to its mouth, is the one navigable river in Austria. It enters the country at Passau, where it is met by the Inn and greatly increased in size. It flows thru the provinces of Upper and Lower Austria, with its tributaries draining a large area of fertile land. It leaves the present boundary of the country just

before reaching the break in the Carpathian mountains. The current of the Danube is swift. Its depth varies because it is fed from fluctuating sources of snow and ice. It reaches its maximum height in Vienna in August. Authorities say that it takes three times as long for steamers to go up stream as to go down. This increases considerably the cost of transportation going west.

The figures available on the economic value of the Danube are not reliable. Different ports have different methods of keeping records, hence the results vary. Some of the goods carried are credited to the countries thru which they pass. The principle Danube ports are Linz and Vienna. Every Danube port has at the same time important rail connections. The internationalization of the river should increase its usefulness. There are at present three navigation companies plying steamers on the Danube. In the background hovers a British syndicate offering to supply capital in order to increase the efficiency of transportation on the internationalized river.

AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES

Proceeding from the foregoing details to a survey of Austria in general, what are the resources at its command? There are roughly speaking, in Austria three geographic regions: the Vienna basin, the Alpine foreland and the Alpine highland. Agriculture is carried on in all of these regions, altho the Vienna basin contains the greatest percentage of productive area. There are the level and hilly areas of Upper and Lower Austria, the lower slopes of the Alps and the steeper slopes of the Tertiary Alpine region. Alluvial plains, former lake basins, tho small are among the valuable assets for farming purposes. They consist of pebbles, gravel and much fine material carried by the rivers in suspension and deposited on the lake bottoms. These lake basins have been formed by faulting of the earth's crust, by glacial erosion and by solution of calcareous rock. Fed and drained by mountain streams the remaining lakes are all potential reservoirs for storing water.

The agricultural holdings are all small. Forestry holds first place, agriculture second, animal husbandry third. The amounts devoted to each vary somewhat with different authorities. These are some recent figures given:

Forestry	43.3%	Grass	16.4%
Agriculture	35.3%	Unproductive	4.9%

Since the forest area is large, the lumber industry is still important, altho greatly reduced by loss of raw materials. The mill work is well developed. The export of wooden houses, barracks and bungalows to Egypt, Turkey, Greece and the Netherlands is of some importance. To the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, South Africa also go doors, windows, wainscoting. The "Kernel" home movement, started to aid the housing problem at home has increased considerably. The toy industry has revived since the war. Altho there is competition with Germany, the prospects are good for export to the Succession States. Vienna and Lower Austria are the seats of this industry.

One of the chief articles of export is paper made from home pulp. No pulp wood is exported. Mine supports and railroad ties are manufactured but principally for home consumption. The native larch, fir and beech are used.

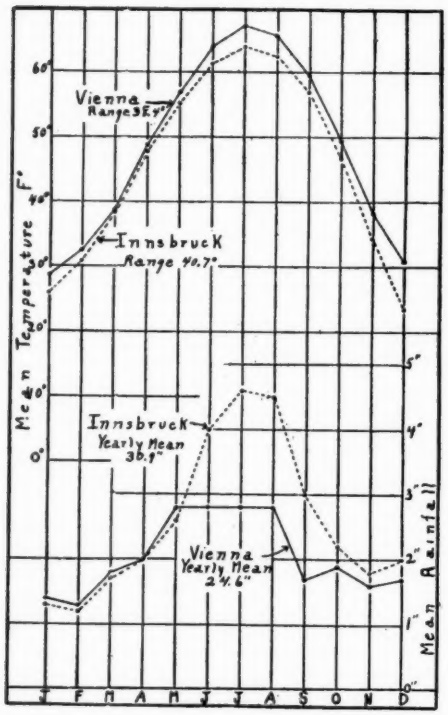
According to the reports of 1924 the principal crops raised in the order of their amounts are, potatoes, oats, rye, wheat, barley, and corn. Hay is grown in all sections. Some vegetables, especially turnips, are raised and a minor amount of sugar beets and vines. The wheat is winter wheat owing to favorable winter conditions and to the fact that the summers are cool and the growing season is not very long. The food supply is totally inadequate, furnishing at present about 10 per cent of the amount needed. Primitive methods are still used largely. The grain is cut with sickles and the bundles tied by hand, men and women both working in the fields. More intensive agriculture might improve conditions somewhat. Modern methods, modern machinery, in so far as they can be used on the small holdings, and a large amount of fertilizer are needed. For these improvements there is at present no capital available.

In the raising of animals, cows, calves and oxen lead in number. There are some goats, a few sheep, the necessary horses, hogs and poultry. The last named seem to be on the increase.

CONDITIONS FAVORING DEVELOPMENT OF RESOURCES

The conditions which make possible the production of these necessities are determined by the following factors:

The new Austria lies in a border zone which is neither what is ordinarily termed oceanic nor far enough east to be in the continental climate area. Vienna is said to be influenced advantageously by what is called the "Schmelzwärme"—melting warmth—of the snows coming from the mountains. The temperature and rainfall variations for an eastern and a western center—Vienna and Innsbruck—are shown in the accompanying graf. It will be seen from this that while the temperature varies but little in the two places it is at all times a little lower in Innsbruck. This is due to the higher altitude, the narrow valley and the steeper slopes.



Theoretically Innsbruck should be warmer than Vienna because it lies on the western side of the high pressure area over the Alps which implies southwesterly winds and greater rainfall. Innsbruck does have greater rainfall. The eastern section of Austria lies in the region of north and northeast winds in which the winter temperature decreases towards the east and calm, crisp, anti-cyclonic weather often prevails when the contrary is true of the western section. The bottoms of valleys of the eastern Alps have the severest cold of the republic in winter. Klagenfurt and Graz basins are shut off from the southern and southwestern influences. The graf shows the larger amount of rainfall for Innsbruck. In both cases the largest amount takes place in the summer months. This for the growing season of June, July and August is an advantageous factor. The amount of water carried by streams is also greatest at this time of year. This water is a powerful asset not only for agriculture but for manufacturing as well.

This "White Coal" is developed only to the extent of 10 per cent, capital being needed for further development. In the absence of coal it is of the utmost importance to the manufacturing industry of Austria. Of coal there is left an inferior brown coal, a kind of lignite, having only 50 per cent of the calorific value of hard coal. Approximately 80 per cent of the coal used must be imported. With the border restrictions now holding, this constitutes a serious problem. The coal is found in the southern and eastern sections in small quantities.

Iron ore is the most valuable mineral product. It has been discussed in connection with the province of Styria. A small amount of oil shale is found in the Tyrol. Small amounts of copper, lead, graphite and gold are found. Considerable quantities of salt are localized in regions already mentioned.

The division of industries as given in the 1922 reports is as follows:

Agriculture and forestry	40%	Trade and commerce	17%
Industries and handicrafts.....	35%	Public service and professions....	8%

Industrial and Commercial Possibilities

Before the war Austria was preeminently a manufacturing nation. It is attempting slowly to build up again. It is still holding its reputation of artistic finish and superior workmanship, especially in the lines of apparatus, machinery, leather and rubber goods. One of its chief difficulties is the preferential treatment laws forced upon it by foreigners who furnish the raw materials and control the products made therefrom.

Among the articles again manufactured are the following:

Iron, machines, autos, freight cars, locomotives, bicycles
Wood, railroad ties, furniture, boxes and crates, bungalows and houses
Textiles, spinning of wool-worsted and carded yarns, some linen, hemp, jute, cotton—some weaving of cotton and some printing of cotton embroideries
Leather, products and manufacturing
Paper, chemicals, electrical supplies, rubber goods, bricks and tiles, cement
Food products, flour, sugar, margerine, tobacco, beer, salt
Arts and crafts, musical instruments, feather ornaments, lamps, silver and bronze goods, buttons, some glass, some lace

The trade of Austria has had a most serious blow in the loss of its seaports, the removal of its raw materials and the erection of frontier barriers. The accuracy of the records on imports and

exports are difficult to evaluate, as the changes in boundaries make comparisons between pro and post war conditions impossible. Also, these goods must pass thru several countries before reaching Austria—principally Germany, The Netherlands and Italy. They are often credited to these countries in the statistical records. In general it may be said that the imports cover a large variety of necessities. The export trade is slowly growing, being greater in 1924 than it was in 1923 but is still of minor importance.

Customs agreements or commercial treaties have been made with the following countries: Germany, France, Great Britain, Holland, Belgium, Luxemburg, Sweden, Denmark and Iceland, Norway, Italy, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, Bulgaria, Portugal, Japan.

Trade relations have been resumed with Russia. Recently the prohibition on import of paper has been removed. Duties are high on metal goods shipped from Austria into the following countries: Jugoslavia, Hungary, France, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Switzerland. These duties range from 20 to 60 per cent.

The glass industry shows slight improvement. The textile industry is in poor condition for reasons already given.

The increase in imports to Austria is greater than the increase in exports from Austria, showing an unfavorable trade balance. The export trade is being assisted by samples carried to England, to southeastern Europe and to a small extent to the United States. The last sample fair held at Vienna by the Chamber of Commerce showed the former good quality of goods. There is no outlook at present for trade with Canada. The records of 1924 show considerable increase of trade with Great Britain. The trade with the United States shows negligible amount. It consists of lard, cotton, wheat flour, other grains, copper, tobacco, meats, condensed milk imported, and paper, metal wares, leather goods exported.

The European ports thru which most goods are sent to and from Austria are Hamburg, Amsterdam and Rotterdam. A lesser amount goes thru Italy.

The Austrians are an educated people. The percentage of illiteracy is practically nil. They are putting their shoulder to the wheel attempting to save the independence of their country. Will they succeed?

POTENTIALITIES

At the close of the war the Tyrol and the province of Vorarlberg were for uniting with Switzerland. Geographically they were a continuation of this country and their common interests are many. Even had Switzerland considered the plan favorably, it would not have solved but rather have rendered more complicated problem of the republic of Austria.

Emigration on a large scale was never seriously considered and would have met many practical difficulties. The tourist trade, while a help in some regions, is not of nation wide importance.

The principle of self determination was eliminated by the peace treaties in the case of Austria. It is rigorously opposed by France and Italy. Hence, the union of Austria with Germany became impossible. This might have been the most natural way out of the difficulty. For economic rather than national reasons it is still the desire of a large percentage of the population. While the Germans of Austria are in many respects like the Germans of south Germany, those of Austria and Prussia differ materially. The bond between them has never been strong. However, this channel for economic recovery is closed.

There remain further hopes for recovery concerning which no definite prophecy can be made. One of these hopes lies in the restoration of Vienna to its former rank as an industrial, commercial and artistic center. As has been shown in detail elsewhere, it is blessed by its former geographic position. Its recovery will depend largely upon the attitude of its neighbors. This also has been fully dealt with previously. Nothing short of a Federation of States for mutual benefit, with unobstructed trade and transportation facilities will enable Austria to achieve an independent existence. The realization of this hope seems at present far off.

Vienna has always been a great center of manufacturing. It has been shown that there are other cities and regions engaged in the same pursuit. Intensive manufacture is another hope. This is handicapped by the want of coal and by the absence of raw materials. Austria has one great potential resource in its undeveloped water power. It is estimated that only 10 per cent has so far been developed. It needs the power for manufacturing and for the electrification of its railroads. But again it lacks capital with which to carry on work.

Another hope lies in improved agriculture. There is room everywhere for intensified agriculture, for modern methods. There is a possibility of the western section producing a type of Alpine agriculture patterned on Swiss models. This again takes more capital than Austria can at present furnish, and it will be a number of years before these methods will show appreciable results. Even then, there is bound to be a deficit in production so far as feeding its own people is concerned.

This then is the situation. Austria needs most of all: a breakdown of its customs barriers set up by the Succession states most of whom, like Austria, are national rather than geographic units; the development of its power plus the capital necessary to do this; the intensification of agriculture thru modern methods and machinery plus the capital to accomplish this; the permission to join Germany because of economic necessity.

What the outcome of its present struggle will be, no one can foretell.

FIRST LESSONS IN CONTINENT STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

Somewhere in the fourth grade the character of the geography work changes radically. Before this time, the children have been engaged in a consideration of "earth and social units" of their own environment—home geography; then in a study of widely separated regions of the earth—world geography.[1] Our own continent, North America, is usually selected for detailed study in the fourth grade.[2] This selection is based upon the need to bring about certain desirable changes in the child's development;[1] in his informational background;[2] in his habits and skill;[3] in his attitudes, ethical understanding, and human sympathies.[3]

[1] Dodge and Kirchwey, Teaching Geography in the Elementary Schools, pp. 26-46. Rand McNally & Co., N. Y. 1913

[2] Ibid. p. 19

[3] J. Russell Smith, Proper Organization of Geography in American Education, pp. 5-7. Also M. E. and F. K. Branom, Teaching of Geography, pp. 62-71. Ginn & Co., N. Y. 1921

1. It is in the introductory study of continents that the child must acquire general facts concerning location, surface, drainage and climate of a continent, as well as those geographic life relationships which are so fundamental and universal as to be designated as "geographic principles." This "general view—will furnish a background for the detailed study which will follow."[4]

2. The fourth grade child must attain a certain degree of independence in study, and must therefore be given the opportunity to use books in acquiring information—the index and table of contents in both textbook and supplementary reader. He must be given the opportunity to acquire facts for himself thru the study of pictures and maps.

3. Since this continent study or more formal geography is to be pursued by the child for several years, it is necessary that in the introductory work he acquire the right attitude toward science in general and geography in particular: the feeling that geography is not a study of bare facts to be remembered, but that it is a living subject full of vital interest, dealing with observable conditions which directly or indirectly influence his life and the lives of others. He must be allowed to experience that unexcelled joy that comes with the appreciation of the beauty of natural phenomena which geography reveals. And at every turn he must be led to understand and tolerate those differences among people that result from differences in geographic environment.

CONTENT AND AIMS IN FOURTH GRADE GEOGRAPHY

We find a difference not only in the content and aims of fourth grade geography, but also in the type of lesson which is used to bring about these desirable changes. Introductory lessons in continent study differ somewhat from the lessons in "Home and World Geography," for these are similar to the ordinary development procedures used in primary reading, language and story work.[5] Neither is this introductory continent study of the problem type as we understand the problem lesson to be in higher grades, for no question arises which must be answered thru the study of minor problems affecting the point at issue.[6]

[4] Dodge and Kirchwey, Teaching Geography in the Elementary Schools, p. 52

[5] Teaching Geography in the Elementary Schools, p. 21

[6] E. E. Smith, Teaching Geography by Problems, p. 49. Doubleday, Page & Co., N. Y. 1921

The problem type of lesson as used in higher grades would fail utterly in the fourth grade, because at this stage of his development, the child lacks many of the simple fundamental principles of geography as well as the ability to study independently and to acquire information independently from textbooks, pictures and maps.

STEPS IN DEVELOPMENT OF INTRODUCTORY LESSONS

There are four steps in the development of these first simple introductory lessons in continent study: (1) recall of travel experiences, use of observation and experiment; (2) study of pictures; (3) study of maps; (4) use of texts.

Recounting of travel experiences, observation or experimentation start the study on something concrete, understandable and observable; use of pictures sustains the feeling of reality as applied to distant unobservable regions; the map generalizes this impression over a large area; the text offers verification, re-presentation of picture and map facts in indisputable "black and white," and offers additional facts which pictures and maps cannot tell.[7] Thru the use of this order of procedure, the dry facts told by maps and texts are inseparably associated in the child's mind with vivid, colorful pictures of actual reality.

OUTLINE OF A SPECIFIC LESSON

Let us see how the aims and processes as outlined above are followed in a lesson as actually taught in a fourth grade.

The children had had a series of lessons developing the map idea; directions by observation; plans of the room and of the school grounds, developing the understanding of direction, symbol and scale; tracing real and imaginary trips to interesting places on the map of the city, recognition of continent forms and oceans on the globe; the relative size, location and general shape of North America; location of the United States in the continent; our neighbors, Canada and Mexico, and the boundaries between them and us. However, the children had never used a physical map of any region.

In this lesson it was desired to introduce the children to a physical map, and to teach them the large surface features of North

[7] Teaching Geography in the Elementary Schools, p. 126.

America, i.e., (1) the Rocky Mountains, Sierra Nevadas, Cascades and Coast Ranges of the west, (2) the Appalachians and the Atlantic Coastal Plain, (3) the Central Plain. The following is a brief account of the lesson as given.

Motivation. What country are we studying? In what continent is the United States? Would you like to travel and visit some of the beautiful parts of our continent. (Allow free discussion for a few minutes so that children may tell where they have visited or would like to visit, until some child mentions our eastern or western mountains. Suppose someone has visited our western mountains or would like to visit them.)

Picture Study. Let us look at these pictures and imagine that we are visiting our western mountains. (Teacher shows pictures of some western mountains and thru questions leads children to describe their steepness of slope, general absence of soil, presence of tree line and of snowy peaks, to realize the difficulties of transportation and farming and to understand the causes for sparse population.)

In crossing these mountains, trains try to follow the more level land beside rivers. Even then it takes about two days to cross, for we must ride over broad plateaus and thru steep sided valleys among the mountains. What ocean do we finally see when we have crossed the mountains? (Teacher allows children who have been to the west coast to describe the narrow ocean roads and beaches. She shows pictures of the Pacific Coast, and thru questions, elicits the observation that the mountains are close to the sea.)

Map Study. Maps are very interesting. We can really see all these pictures in this map if we know how to look. On this map, where are the mountains we are talking about? (Children are shown scale of elevation on the physical map of North America, and by comparing colors, are able to read the approximate heights of mountains. Teacher encourages individuals to pass hands over map in order to note the extent of western mountains thru length of continent. Children note scale of miles, and then approximate the width of mountains by comparing scale with brown coloring on map. They note nearness of mountains to the Pacific Ocean.)

Text Study. What are the names of some of our western mountains? Perhaps our books will tell us. (Children volunteer the belief that the paragraph headed "Surface" will give the informa-

tion, and they find the names Sierra Nevada, Cascades, Coast Ranges, and Rocky Mountains. The names are pronounced and written on the board. Individual children read aloud phrases or sentences descriptive of these mountains. The different ranges are located on the map.) (Repetition of procedure for Eastern Mountains and for Central Plain.)

Summary. Suppose you were to see a picture of some part of the United States, do you think you could tell where the picture was taken? (Teacher shows five pictures, (1) of some part of the Cordilleras, (2) of some part of the Appalachians, (3) of some part of the Central Plain, (4) of some part of our Pacific coast, (5) of some part of our Atlantic coast. She covers titles and asks children to identify pictures.)

Assignment. In your books, find the surface map of North America, using the "Table of Contents." At home tonight, look at this map and try to see pictures in your minds, of different parts of our country. The paragraph that we used today will help you to remember and to think of these pictures.

Expression. A committee of children cuts out a number of small pictures from railroad folders, removing titles but retaining identities of pictures by means of duplicate numbers. These pictures are distributed among other members of the class during a study period, and children paste them in their note books, writing under pictures the names of the surface divisions of our country in which they think pictures were taken, and so solve a "puzzle." The committee collects the note books and verifies the answers.

SUMMARY

If this general form of treatment is followed in the teaching of location, surface, drainage and climate of the United States, children will be started on their geography careers with an intelligent interest in the subject, and a true conception of life and geographical relationships; they will also have a firm foundation of basic information and a knowledge and understanding of simple fundamental principles upon which they can surely lean in their later study.

SHIPS AT SEA, NO. 2

DOUGLAS C. RIDGLEY

International University Cruise

WEATHER OBSERVATIONS

All weather observations have to do with six elements: temperature, pressure, wind, cloudiness, rainfall, and humidity. The *Ryndam* is equipped with thermometers for taking the temperature of air and water. The mercurial barometer, aneroid barometer, and barograph are used for measuring and recording pressure. The direction and force of the wind is determined by careful observation of movement and height of the waves. Cloudiness is observed and record made of the kinds of clouds and the tenths of the sky covered by clouds. Rainfall is recorded with reference to duration and amount. The amount of rainfall is recorded as slight, moderate, heavy, and very heavy. Relative humidity is measured by the sling psychrometer.

The officers take weather observations every two hours while at sea. No observations are recorded while in port or in narrow straits where weather conditions are strongly influenced by land. The weather records of the *Ryndam* are furnished to the governmental officials of Holland on return to the home port, Rotterdam, after each trip. Certain records of weather and sea are kept on special blanks supplied by the United States Weather Bureau and Hydrographic Office. These records are deposited at ports with the American consul, who forwards them to Washington, D.C.

The weather records made on the *Ryndam* on its 16,000 mile journey from New York to Batavia show the following extremes:

The highest air temperature was 88°, September 26, 4 P.M., between Havana and Cristobal. The lowest air temperature was 50°, November 15, 4 A.M., between Moji and Shanghai. The highest water temperature was 84°, November 30, noon, between Manila and Bangkok. The lowest water temperature was 61°, November 18, 4 P.M., between Shanghai and Hongkong.

The highest barometric pressure, 30.5 inches, occurred November 19, between Shanghai and Hongkong. The lowest pressure was 29.6 inches, October 8, near San Pedro, California.

The wind has blown from every point of the compass. Its force has varied from perfect calm in which there was no wind movement on September 19, 29, 30, October 2, 13, 16, 28, November 2, 4, 30, December 1, 3, 4, 7, and 9, to a moderate gale of 35 miles per hour on September 25, November 14, 15, and 20.

The duration of rainfall varied from a period of a quarter of an hour, or less, on several dates to 9 hours on September 25, between Havana and Cristobal. This was also the heaviest rainfall between New York and Batavia.

Relative humidity is not recorded regularly by the officers of the *Ryndam*. For record of the Cruise, however, careful measurement of relative humidity began on leaving Hongkong. The highest relative humidity measured was 90 per cent, November 24, 4 P.M., between Hongkong and Manila, the lowest, 63 per cent, December 8, noon, between Bangkok and Singapore.

With every record of the weather observation, the latitude, longitude, date, and hour are given. Weather observations similar to those kept on the *Ryndam* are recorded by the officers of all ocean vessels. These records are turned over to their respective governments. Government publications make the records available for study and comparison. Thus the weather conditions of the ocean are made known in great detail in the most frequented tracks of ocean travel. All observations on less frequented routes add important facts to the knowledge of the weather of the ocean areas.

SUPPLIES FOR THE SHIP

All supplies for the ship are purchased thru the purser's office. The purser keeps a comprehensive system of accounts which shows at all times the amount of goods on hand. Food constitutes the largest item of the ship's supplies, but numerous articles are provided at the beginning of the journey, and from port to port, for the deck department, the general service, the engine room, and the medical office. A study of the food supplies gives a good notion of the organization and care necessary to keep the University World Cruise properly supplied while making its journey of 227 days.

The *Ryndam* left New York with its storerooms filled to capacity. At all the larger ports additional supplies are purchased to replace the food used at sea. To aid the captain and purser to make purchases to advantage the Holland American Line provided the purser, at the beginning of the cruise, with a long list of supplies available at each port, with quotations of latest prices. The purser was also given the names of several supply firms at each port. Representatives of leading supply firms come to the purser's office as soon as the ship arrives in port. Each representative is furnished, by the purser, with a list of needed supplies.

All representatives are to return to the ship at a stated hour with samples and prices. They meet a committee consisting of the purser, the chief steward, and the chief cook. The chief steward and chief cook judge the samples, and the purser examines and compares prices. Orders may go to a number of supply houses. The purser takes all orders to the captain for his approval and signature. The representatives then return to their supply houses and make estimates of the bills for which they have received signed orders.

The purser summarizes estimates for all supplies, including provisions, deck supplies, engine supplies, cleaning supplies, and medical supplies. These estimates are submitted to the captain. The captain and purser go to a bank at the port and obtain the needed money on a letter of credit provided by the Holland America Line.

Supplies are delivered at the ship by the various supply companies receiving orders. The supplies are received by the ship's officers. The chief steward and the chief cook examine the goods to see that they are of the same quality as the samples. The purser, aided by the storekeeper, checks the list and notes the quantity. The goods are placed in their proper places in the storerooms, and the ship has its supplies ready for further voyage.

In addition to the food supplies for daily use, the laws of Holland require that all Dutch ships carry a reserve supply of concentrated, preserved foods, sufficient to provide all persons on the ship for 14 days after the regular food supplies are exhausted. This requirement makes provision for ample food in case the ship is delayed by storms, or by accident to machinery of the ship.

THE LIFE BOAT AND ITS EQUIPMENT

Ships at sea are provided with life boats in sufficient numbers to carry all persons on the ship. On the *Ryndam* there are twenty-six life boats placed near the edge of the hurricane deck, also called the boat deck. Each life boat is approximately 30 feet long, 8 feet wide, and 4 feet deep, and can carry 52 persons. It is launched by removing a strong iron pin which holds the boat chocks in an upright position. As the boat is swung aft a short distance, the boat chocks fall down and the boat hangs from the davits. The fore part of the boat is swung outside and pushed forward; the aft end of the boat is then swung outward, and the boat is hanging outside the ship. The ropes and pulleys of the boat tackles are now used to lower the boat.

In every stateroom there is a card telling the occupants the number of the life boat to which they are assigned. Early in the World Cruise, the captain ordered a

boat drill. At the ringing of the bell, all passengers went to the hurricane deck. Each person found the boat to which he was assigned and reported to the officer in command of the boat. On the outer walls of A-deck, boat numbers are printed in large figures. If the life boats are to be launched, and the ship abandoned, the passengers do not go to the hurricane deck, but to A-deck where their boat number is found. The members of the crew all report to the hurricane deck and assist in swinging the boat outside of the ship and lowering it to the level of A-deck. Here the life boat is loaded with its passengers and all members of the crew, assigned to the boat, except two sailors. These two men remain on the hurricane deck until the loaded boat is lowered to the water. They then descend by a rope ladder, known as Jacob's ladder. A Jacob's ladder is in each life boat. As soon as the boat is swung outside the hurricane deck, one end of the Jacob's ladder is fastened to the deck, and the other end remains in the boat. The jacob's ladder is left behind, hanging on the side of the abandoned ship. Its sole purpose is to enable the last two men of the crew to descend to the life boat. Each life boat of the *Ryndam* is manned by ten to twelve men of the crew. Each boat carries members of the crew from the different classes of service on the ship: an officer in command, one or more sailors, engineers, firemen, stewards, or others.

The Dutch law requires that all life boats shall be set out on the water every four months. The life boats of the *Ryndam* were set out at Bangkok. All members of the crew took active part in the process. The boats were left on the water for a half day and then hoisted to the boat deck.

Each life boat has an equipment that shows the exceeding care required by national governments and provided by ship owners for the safety of passengers and crew in case the ship must be abandoned. Inside the life boat, along the sides, are copper tanks filled with air. These air cases increase the floating power of the boat when heavily loaded. The canvas boat cover is removed and placed in the boat, as it may be useful for making or repairing sails, for catching drinking water in case of need, and for other purposes. In the boat, ready for immediate installation and use are a mast and sails; nine oars, eight for rowing and one for reserve; ten paddles; a rudder and helm; one boat hook; a compass; a grapnel for anchoring in shallow water; a sea anchor, made of canvas in such form as to aid in keeping the boat from capsizing in a heavy sea; and the painter, a long rope to make fast to A-deck until the last men are in the boat. The painter is then cut and the life boat sets forth on its voyage.

The rest of the equipment is compactly placed under the thwarts, as the four cross seats are called. Here we find numerous articles for safety in navigation, and a limited supply of drinking water and food. There is a life preserver, a lantern with candles and matches, a flare-up light, and a can with lamp oil. A wooden bucket has for its contents a wooden hammer, a bottle of turpentine for the flare-up light, a wooden bailer for scooping water from the boat, and a small canvas bag filled with wave-stilling oil.

A galvanized iron chest, protected by a canvas cover, contains route charts for the voyage, a medical outfit, signal lights, and an ax. A small world chart, specially prepared for the University World Cruise, is placed in a galvanized iron cylinder under one of the thwarts. Life boats, thus equipped, and manned by skillful sailors, provide for emergencies at sea as fully as human foresight can make such provision. The *Ryndam* was launched in 1901. During a period of twenty-six years, the life boats were of service on two occasions.

On December 28, 1926, in the harbor of Colombo, two picked crews from the students of the navigation class lowered two of the life boats. After two hours of practice, led by two officers of the Bridge, the instructors of the navigation class, the two crews competed in a boat race. The course was nearly one mile in length; the time was 3 minutes 27 seconds. The winning boat crossed the line one boat length ahead of its competitor.

HABIT, MEMORY, IMAGINATION AND APPRECIATION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GEOGRAPHY

MARY A. DORGAN

Gaston Junior High School
South Boston, Mass.

HABITS

Those that should be perfected to a reasonable degree by time pupil completes elementary school geography.

1. Habit of knowing how to use materials such as text books, supplementary books, maps, charts, globes, pictures
2. Habit of rejection as well as selection of worth while material and material not worth while
3. Habit of observation
4. Habit of attention
5. Time saving habits in giving out materials, getting to work, and in responding quickly
6. Habit of reading for thought—maps, pictures, charts, etc., as well as books
7. Habit of expressing oneself orally and in writing
8. Habit of doing things. (Leads to ability to do.)

MEMORY

There is no great distinction between habit and memory.

Memory in its most accepted meaning, is the ability to recall the appropriate response to a particular situation, in a mental sense. Habit—in a motor sense.

Memory, of course, differs in individuals, and depends mainly on powers of retention and to some extent on number and organization of associations.

In Grade VII, we may expect, in geography, a reasonable retention of good habits formed from Grades IV to VIII (as listed above).

Memory, on the whole, cannot be improved. A child either has a good memory or he hasn't, but we do find the individual who possesses a good memory and has not used it.

In geography, in the junior high school, the teacher should not be as concerned about the pupil remembering a number of facts as she is about his ability to think out a new situation for

himself, and her duty to so direct the class room situation in the matter of habit formation that the pupil will have in mind ideals that will carry over into adult life.

There are, however, certain basic geographical facts which all should retain. Children may be taught to keep in notebooks important data they wish to remember. Orderly arrangement of these under definite headings will help fix facts. Sometimes the mere writing is an aid.

Another memory help in geography teaching comes thru the uses of the problem method. So using the problem that it meets an immediate desire on the part of the pupil and tends to increase his interest so that he wishes to know more, naturally makes facts acquired in solving of that particular problem a more lasting possession of the child who solves it.

IMAGINATION

Imagination is the process of reproducing or reconstructing any form of experience and making a mental image. Imagination looks back into memory and forward to thinking.

In geography we should have (1) habit of visualizing (to see the world beyond immediate environment), (2) habit of play—dramatization—creative work, (3) imaging (Idealistic rather than realistic. The hope in geography for a united world—peace—service to fellow men. The power to create the new from the old).

APPRECIATION

Appreciation is the feeling side of what is present, the feeling of beauty in things which we may not be able to actually do ourselves. Personality enters into the situation and enjoys what there is to enjoy. A certain amount of knowledge is likely to increase appreciation but meagre knowledge makes one critical.

In geography, the power of appreciation tends to give a (1) feeling of pride in one's own community—then broadening to city—to state—to nation, (2) an appreciation of the beautiful in geography (nature—art—architecture), (3) an appreciation of human nature (openmindedness—tolerance; examples of great men, past and present; value of human life—war) and (4) feeling of desirability of travel.

SUMMER COURSES IN GEOGRAPHY

The following educational institutions sent data of summer school work in geography.

University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo. June 20-July 23; July 25-August 26

General Geology (Either Term). Associate Professor Toepelman and Dr. Brown
Field Geology (Either Term). Mr. Hoffmeister and Associate Professor Toepelman
Historical Geology (Either Term). Mr. Hoffmeister
Advanced Field Geology (Second Term). Mr. Hoffmeister
Advanced Geology (Either Term). Associate Professor Toepelman
Geography of North America (Second Term). Dr. Brown
Geographic Influences in American History (First Term). Dr. Brown
Climatology (First Term). Mr. Hoffmeister
Principles of Human Geography (Second Term). Dr. Brown
Teaching of Geography in Upper Grades and High School (Second Term). Dr. Brown
Graphics and Cartography (Second Term). Mr. Hoffmeister
Geography of the Great Plains (First Term). Dr. Brown
Geography of Latin America (First Term). Dr. Brown
Conservation of Natural Resources (First Term). Associate Professor Toelman
Field Courses in Geology. Professor McCourt, Associate Professor Sperry, and Assistant Professor Gibson

Headquarters are at Science Lodge adjoining the University Camp near the Continental Divide, about 25 miles from Boulder. The cost is $122.00 each term, including all expenses. Students desiring to register should consult with Professor W. E. McCourt, by mail or in person before June 15 (address, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo., until June 12, after that date, University of Colorado, Boulder). Applicants for the second term only should consult Professor McCourt before July 19. Courses are offered to three types of students: beginners, advanced, and graduate. The last five days of each term are devoted to a trip thru the Rocky Mountain National Park

State Normal School, Lewiston, Idaho. June 6-August 5

Principles of Geography. Professor Ernest E. Holmes
Geography Methods. Professor Ernest E. Holmes
Geography of Primary Grades. Professor Ernest E. Holmes

University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. June 20-Sept. 2

Geography of North America. Professor Colby
Elements of Geography for Senior College Students. Assistant Professor Platt
Economic Geography for Senior College Students. Associate Professor Whittlesey
Conservation of Natural Resources. Professor Barrows
Historical Geography of United States. Professor Barrows
Ocean Trade and Transportation. Professor Colby
Geography of Africa. Associate Professor Whittlesey
Geography of France. Professor Blanchard (University of Grenoble, France)
Urban Geography. Professor Blanchard (University of Grenoble, France)
Field Geography (Green Bay, Wisconsin Region—Second Term) Assistant Professor Platt
The Technique of Teaching Geography. Assistant Professor Parker

Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill. June 26-July 29

The Teaching of Geography in the Elementary Grades 1-6. Dr. Fred K. Branom
The Teaching of Geography in the Junior High School and 7th and 8th Grades. Dr. Fred K. Branom
The Geography of North America. Ira N. Van Hise
The Geography of South America. Ira N. Van Hise
The Geography of Europe. Miss Alyda C. Hanson
The Geography of Asia. Miss Alyda C. Hanson
Commercial and Industrial Geography. Miss Alyda C. Hanson

Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. June 27-August 20

Physiography and Geology (Introductory Course). Dr. Fuller
Industrial and Commercial Geography. Assistant Professor Ward
Conservation of Natural Resources. Assistant Professor Ward
Special Problems in Geography and Physiography. Professor Haas

Regional Studies in Geology and Geography. Professor Haas and Assistant Professors Ball and Ward A field course in the geology, physiography, and geography of the Chicago area and the adjacent regions of southern Wisconsin, northern Illinois and northwestern Indiana.

Advanced Regional Studies in Geology and Geography. Professor Haas and Assistant Professors Ball and Ward. A field course in which trips of several days' duration will be taken to south-central and eastern Wisconsin, northwestern Illinois, including a part of the driftless area; coal fields of Illinois and the Bedford limestone region of Indiana.

Indiana State Normal School, Terre Haute, Ind. June 13-July 16; July 17-August 20

Western Travel Course. Associate Professor W. L. Perkins
Eastern Travel Course. Professor B. H. Shockel
Elements of Geography. Assistant Professor Louise Bruner
Teaching of Geography. Assistant Professor Louise Bruner
Elements of Geography (Second Term). Professor B. H. Shockel
Commercial Geography (Second Term). Professor B. H. Shockel

The eastern travel trip will follow roughly the National Road, and the Hudson-Mohawk and Lake Champlain routes. The western trip will cross the plains to Denver and work north in the Rocky mountains thru Yellowstone National Park. Transportation will be by motor bus. Geography, geology, and history will be emphasized. The trips will be preceded by a number of lectures at Terre Haute.

University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas. June 8-July 16

World Geography. Associate Professor C. J. Posey
Geography of North America. Associate Professor C. J. Posey

Field Geology. Associate Professor W. H. Schoewe. A 5-weeks' field course, study of the geology and physiography of parts of Kansas and Colorado, or other selected area. Prerequisites, Geology 1, 2. Registration only after consultation with the department. No auditors.

Clark University, Worcester, Mass. July 5-August 12

Geography of North America. Associate Professor Clarence F. Jones
Economic Geography. Associate Professor Clarence F. Jones
Research in Economic Geography. Associate Professor Clarence F. Jones
The Geography of United States Agriculture. Associate Professor W. Elmer Ekblaw
Influences of Geographic Environment. Associate Professor W. Elmer Ekblaw
Research in Regional Geography. Associate Professor W. Elmer Ekblaw
Geography of Europe. William van Royen
Weather. Professor Charles F. Brooks
Climate. Professor Charles F. Brooks
Research in Climatology. Professor Charles F. Brooks.

The Teaching of Geography in the Elementary School. Associate Professor Douglas C. Ridgely

Materials in Geography. Associate Professor Douglas C. Ridgley and Eugene C. Belknap
Geography in Education for Special Teachers. Associate Professor Douglas C. Ridgley
Geography of New York State. Dr. Alfred Willis Abrams
Graphics and Cartography. Guy H. Burnham
Mathematical Geography. Guy H. Burnham
Field Work in Geography. The Geography Staff
Seminar in Geography. The Geography Staff

European Field Trip. President Wallace W. Atwood in cooperation with Professor W. H. Barker of the University of Manchester, England, including England, Scotland, and Wales, and three weeks on the Continent. Six semester hours credit.

Lake Champlain-Montreal Field Trip, in charge of Associate Professor Clarence F. Jones, and New England Field Trip, in charge of a competent leader to be announced later, each of two weeks' duration immediately after the close of the summer session. Three semester hours credit.

Advanced Field Work, Deerfield Valley, September 1-21. Associate Professor Clarence F. Jones. Three semester hours credit

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. June 27-August 19

Elements of Geography. R. B. Hall
Geography of Commercial Production. J. Thomas
Geography of Asia. R. B. Hall
Conservation. J. Thomas
Research and special work in regional or economic geography. R. B. Hall and J. Thomas
Elementary Field Course. P. E. James
Advanced Field Course. P. E. James

Summer field course in Kentucky and Tennessee. Four weeks in camp near Mill Springs, Ky., at which methods of detailed geographical field studies are taken up; followed by a two weeks reconnaissance trip across the Apalachians and the Coastal Plain. June 21-July 29.

State Teachers College, Mankato, Minn. June 13-July 22

Economic Geography. George J. Miller
North America. George J. Miller
Elements of Geography (Two Sections). Winifred Maley

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. June 18-July 30

Human Geography. Professor D. H. Davis
Geography of Commercial Production. Richard Hartshorne
Trade Routes and Trade Centers. Richard Hartshorne
Field Course in Geography. Professor D. H. Davis. A consideration of the problems of field work illustrated by field trips.

University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo. June 9-August 4

Geography of Europe. Professor Sam T. Bratton
Principles of Geography: Content and Method. Professor Sam T. Bratton
Pro-Seminar. Professor Sam T. Bratton
Seminar and Research. Professor Sam T. Bratton
Field Course (4 weeks following close of Summer Session). Professor Sam T. Bratton

University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska

First Term June 6-July 15

Principles of Geography. Associate Professor E. E. Lackey
Regional Geography of the Continents. Associate Professor E. E. Lackey
Geography of the Land. Esther S. Anderson
Introduction to Economic Geography. Esther S. Anderson
Geography of Nebraska. Esther S. Anderson
Methods in Elementary Geography. Associate Professor E. E. Lackey
Research in Geography. Associate Professor E. E. Lackey and Esther S. Anderson

Second Term. July 16-August 26

Principles of Geography. Associate Professor E. E. Lackey
Regional Geography of the Continents. Associate Professor E. E. Lackey
Economic Geography of the United States. Professor N. A. Bengtson
Geography of Nebraska. Associate Professor E. E. Lackey
Geography of Europe. Professor N. A. Bengtson
Geography of Agricultural Industries. Professor N. A. Bengtson
Research in Geography. Professor N. A. Bengtson and Associate Professor E. E. Lackey

Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. July 5-August 12

Physical Geography. Professor von Engeln
Commercial Geography. Professor von Engeln
Weather and Climate in Relation to Man. Associate Professor Visher
Aids to the Teaching of Elementary and High School Geography. Associate Professor Visher
Geology. Professor Rowe
Mineral Resources. Professor Rowe
Historial Geology. Professor Leighton
Physical Geography Laboratory Course. Mrs. Donovan
Geology Laboratory Course. Professor Leighton and Mrs. Donovan
Geography and Geology Field Course. Professor Leighton, von Engeln and Visher, other members of the Department cooperating.

Field Course. The environs of Cornell are rich in phenomena of geographic and geologic interest. In the Field Course are nine excursions, on which are visited Taughannock Falls, Enfield Glen, North Spencer Terminal Moraine, Niagara Falls, Tulley, Jamesville Lake, and Onondaga Escarpment. The longer excursions come at week-ends and may be taken by students who are doing course work in other subjects.

Columbia University, New York City. July 11-August 19

Economic Geography. Lester E. Klimm
Physical Geography and its Economic Aspects. Frederick K. Morris
Geography of North America. Professor Armin K. Lobeck
Geography of Asia. Frederick K. Morris

Geography of Europe. Professor Armin K. Lobeck
Mathematical Geography. Dr. Clement S. Brainin
Teaching Geography in Lower Grades. DeForest Stull
Teaching Geography in Upper Grades. DeForest Stull
Essentials of Geography for Teachers. DeForest Stull
Field Work in Physiography (Western Region) June 18-July 11. Professor Armin K. Lobeck
Field Work in Physiography (Eastern Region) August 20-31. Professor Armin K. Lobeck

Western Field Trip: Practical field work in physiography in some of the great scenic regions of the west, including Pike's Peak, Garden of the Gods, Rocky Mountain National Park, Yellowstone Park and Glacier Park. Leave Chicago June 18; return to Chicago July 9, to New York, July 11.

Eastern Field Trip: Practical field work in New York and New England, including the Hudson, Gorge thru the Highlands, Mt. Beacon, Great Appalachian Valley, Adirondack Mountains, Lake George, Lake Champlain, the Green Mountains, and the White Mountains. August 20-31 (inclusive).

Ohio University, Athens, Ohio. June 13-August 12

Geography and Methods Upper Grades. Professor C. E. Cooper
Geography and Methods Lower Grades. Assistant Professor Jane Atwood
Geography and Environment. Professor C. E. Cooper
Geography of Europe. Assistant Professor Jane Atwood
Geography of Ohio. Professor C. E. Cooper

Western Reserve University—Cleveland School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio. June 20-July 29

Economic Geography. Miss Smith.
Geography of South America. Mr. Gregory
Conference in the Teaching of Elementary Geography. Miss Smith and Mr. Gregory
Regional Geography of Europe. Miss Smith

Industrial Geography—Field Course. Mr. Gregory and Mrs. Jacober. A field course in which twenty-five major industries are studied to obtain first hand information and give opportunity to gather materials. Each industry is given a special study which is embodied in a report.

Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio. June 22-August 10

Field Geology. Professor George D. Hubbard. Intended as preparation for advanced work in geology and geography and as partial preparation for teaching these subjects. The field for 1927 is virgin ground never having been described before. It is located in Southern Vermont where glacial drift in great variety mantles metamorphic rocks and intruded igneous rocks. Stream work is everywhere present. The field work consists of a careful study of all that is geologic, and the making of topographic, physiographic, and geologic maps. A report is written after the field work is over. The cost is about $115.00 besides railroad fare.

Ohio State University, Columbus, O. June 20-August 31

Principles of Geography. First and Second Term. Professors Van Cleef and Carlson
Economic Geography. Second Term. Professor Van Cleef
Economic Geography of Europe. The Quarter. Professor Van Cleef
The Political Geography of South America. The Quarter. Professor Carlson
Research in Geography. The Quarter. Professors Van Cleef and Carlson

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

Geography of Agricultural Products. Mr. Cox
Geography of Manufactured Products. Mr. Cox
Economic Geography of Major Countries. Mr. Cox
General Geography. Mr. Kennamer
Conservation of Natural Resources. Mr. Cox
Climate and Man. Mr. Parkins and Mr. Switzer
Advanced Physiography. Mr. Switzer
Historical Geography of United States. Miss Faust
Geography of North America. Mr. Cox
Geography of World Problems. Mr. Parkins and Mr. Kennamer
Geography of Europe. Mr. Switzer
Materials and Methods of Teaching Geography. Mr. Parkins
Seminar in Geography. Mr. Parkins and Mr. Switzer

Abilene Christian College, Abilene, Texas. June 8-August 20

Regional Geography. Professor J. Sullivan Gibson
Geographic Influences in American History
Teaching of Geography in the Grades
Business Geography
Geographical Problems

Field Course. The course consists of a two-weeks' tour of the central Northwest. The expedition will leave Abilene, July 4, returning July 18, and will travel over the lines of the Southern Pacific Railroad Company. Frequent stops will be made at points of geographic interest, and several days will be spent in Yellowstone National Park. In addition to the field study, a series of lectures will be given by the instructor in charge. This course will be open not only to students of Abilene Christian College, but to any one wishing to make the trip.

Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas.

Economic Geography. Assistant Professor Edwin J. Foscue
Economic Geography of Europe. Assistant Professor Edwin J. Foscue

Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Texas. June 6-August 27

College Courses

Elements of Geography. G. E. Harding
Business Geography. G. E. Harding
The Geography of North America. G. E. Harding
The Geography of Europe. G. E. Harding
Historical Geology. G. E. Harding
The Teaching of Geography. G. E. Harding

Pre-College Courses

Principles of Human Geography
Economic Geography

State Teachers College, Whitewater, Wisconsin. June 20-July 29

Commercial Geography. W. C. Fischer
Geography of South America. W. C. Fischer
Principles of Geography and Methods. Florence Shattuck

Rocky Mountain Field Course. W. C. Fischer. Commencing June 25, 1927, the Whitewater State Teachers College and the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association offer a field trip to Yellowstone National Park, the Northern Rockies and the Puget Sound Region. The trip starts June 25 from St. Paul and closes July 9. The course covers 4200 miles and is estimated to cost $220.00. Field notes and a written report are necessary for credit. For further information write W. C. Fischer, Whitewater, Wisconsin, or E. S. Doudna, Madison, Wisconsin.

University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin. June 25-Aug. 5

Principles of Geography (Introductory). Mr. Smith
Geography of Latin America. Mr. Smith
Geography of Europe. Lecturer Williams (U. of Penn.)
Geography of the World's Mineral Resources. Lecturer Williams
Geography of North America. Associate Professor Finch
Agricultural Geography. Associate Professor Finch
General Geology. Professor Twenhofel

Field Course in Physiography to the Rocky Mountains, June 18 to July 9. Associate Professor Lobeck

State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. July 6-August 5

The Teaching of Geography. Professor Louise W. Mears
Geography and Physiography of Wisconsin. Professor Louise W. Mears
Geography of South America. Professor Louise W. Mears
Physiography. Harvey A. Uber
Economic Geography. Harvey A. Uber
Map Making and Interpretation. Harvey A. Uber

NEW BOOKS, PAMPHLETS AND MAPS

Harriet Smith. **Aids in the Teaching of Geography.** Sam Houston College Press, Huntsville, Tex. 1926. 15 cents.

A revision of the former pamphlet that was given gratis by Sam Houston College. This booklet lists the names and addresses of companies supplying reference books, texts, periodicals, atlases, maps, globes, lantern slides, pictures, and other illustrative materials.

Howard E. Simpson. **The Conservation of Artesian Water.** 24 pp. University Station, Grand Forks, N. D. 1926.

This bulletin may be secured by sending two cents postage to the State Water Geologist at the above address. It contains the second biennial report of the State Water Geologist, a description of the Dakota Artesian Basin, and a statement of the North Dakota Artesian Water Law passed in 1921 and amended in 1925. The third biennial report is also available. Since the waters of the Dakota Artesian Basin are tapped by wells in adjacent states, North Dakota is hoping that a nearly uniform legislation regarding artesian wells may prevail in all states sharing the Dakota Basin.

The South Carolina Department of Agriculture, Commerce and Industries have recently issued these publications: **South Carolina Agriculture and Industry.** 42 pp. Illustrated. The State Company, Columbia, S. C.; **Seventeenth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Agriculture, Commerce and Industries.** Labor Division. 73 pp. 1925; **Year Book and Twenty-second Annual Report of the Department of Agriculture, Commerce and Industries.** 164 pp.

Ohio's Coal Problem. **Findings of Committee on Ohio Coal Mining.** 19 pp. Ohio Chamber of Commerce, Columbus, Ohio. 1926.

Idleness among Ohio's coal miners and unprofitable coal operations prompted this investigation. The committee, headed by Samuel S. Wyer, reported on the facts of the situation, the public's interest in it, and gave a number of recommendations.

Samuel S. Wyer. **Our Coal Problem.** 30 pp. Ohio Chamber of Commerce, Columbus, Ohio. 1926.

The fundamentals of this pamphlet are taken from the U. S. Coal Commission's 2,719 page report. A concise statement of very useful information.

Our Imports and Who Use Them. National Foreign Trade Council, 1 Hanover Square, N. Y. 10 cents.

This 32 page illustrated pamphlet presents "in popular manner a careful analysis of the part played by imports in the life of the American people." For use in elementary and secondary schools.

Sten De Geer. **The Kernel Area of the Nordic Race Within Northern Europe.** A reprint from "Racial Characters of the Swedish Nation." p. 161-171, Uppsala. 1926.

De Geer makes three racial character maps to show the distribution of mean stature, eye color, and head form. The intensity or frequency of each character in a given area is represented by well chosen colors separated by isarithms. These three racial factors are then combined into one map to show the intensity of the Nordic race characters. The Scandinavian language area is delimited on the same map. As a result of this synthesis of racial characters, De Geer believes that the Kernel area of the Nordic race is in the central and broadest part of the Scandinavian Peninsula. It is hoped this contribution will be a stimulus to further research by anthropologists.

The American Museum of Natural History, New York, issues a series of handbooks that are not merely a guide to museum collections, but a summary of facts and interpretations gleaned from a variety of sources. The following numbers contain valuable cultural material richly illustrated with photographs and maps: Clark Whissler. North American Indians of the Plains. Handbook Series No. 1 (Second Edition), 164 pp., 1920; Pliny Earle Goddard. Indians of the Southwest. Handbook Series No. 2 (Second Edition), 195 pp., 1921; Ancient Civilizations of Mexico and Central America. Handbook Series No. 3 (Second and Revised Edition), 242 pp., 1922; Frederick A. Lucas. Animals of the Past. Handbook Series No. 4 (Sixth and Revised Edition), 207 pp., 1922; A. L. Kroeber. Peoples of the Philippines. Handbook Series No. 8, 224 pp., 1919.

The Twenty Grades will be published at intervals by Ginn & Co. The opening number, January, 1927, contains an article on regional geography contributed by Ella B. Knight, special teacher of geography, Omaha.

Alexis Everett Frye. **The Brooklet's Story.** 189 pp. Illustrated. Ginn & Co., Boston. 1927. 80 cents.

A chipmunk, a squirrel, a robin, and a rabbit gather at a brook near which a daisy grows. Their conversation, wisely guided by the brook, deals with all the natural phenomena that occur in a brook basin. Poems are interwoven with the stories. These fanciful stories are intended to serve as a child's first steps in geography. The book is a new edition of Brooks and Brook Basins.

The Gaspe Peninsula. 41 pp. Prepared by the Natural Resources Intelligence Service, Department of the Interior, Ottawa, Canada.

This general report of the resources and development of the Gaspe Peninsula is accompanied by an excellent large scale map bearing an overprint of the resources of the area.

Hungary Before and After the War in Economic-Statistical Maps. Edited by A. E. Illés and A. Halász. 159 pp. Published by the Institute of Political Sciences of the Hungarian Statistical Society, Budapest, Hungary. 1926. $5.00.

Most of the data for this economic atlas is for the years 1923, 1924 and 1925. The economic situation within the present boundaries is shown in relation to that when Croata-Slavonia was included with the present Hungary. In addition to the various production maps there are those showing the physical features of the land, and cultural statistics about the population. A large ethnographical map is included.

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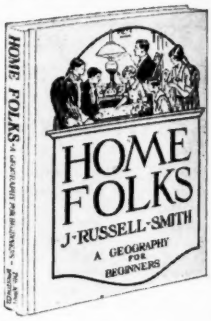

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